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for many years a slave in Chilás, as Ahmad Shah reports). The Gabriális were converted to Muhammadanism by a saint named *Bábá*, whose shrine is in Gabriál, and is one of the most frequented places by pilgrims. The Gabriális say that this saint lived six or seven generations ago. Mir Abdulla (who is really of Afghán extraction, but now lives in Gabriál,) says that the Gabriális were converted to Islám about 150 years ago. Lately, this religion has made great progress among the people of Kandiá generally. Every little village has a mosque, and in most of the towns there are numerous mosques with schools attached to them, which are generally crowded by students from every caste. In Gabriál, the Mullahs or priests are, for the most part, of the Shin caste, but men of every caste are zealous in giving education to their sons. Their education is limited to Muhammadan law (of the Hanifite school), and Arabian logic and philosophy. Very little attention is paid to Arabic or Persian general literature and caligraphy, that great Oriental art; so little, indeed, that Hamfullah and Mir Abdulla, who are scholars of a very high standard, are wholly ignorant of any of the caligraphic forms, and their handwriting is scarcely better than that of the lowest primary class boys in the schools of the Punjab.

The most accomplished scholar in Kandiá is the high priest and chief of Patan, named Hazrat Ali, who is a Shin.

The people generally are peaceful, and have a fair complexion and erect bearing. Their social and moral status has lately been raised very high. Robbery and adultery are almost unknown, and the usual punishment for these crimes is death. Divorce is seldom practised; polygamy is not rare among the rich men (*ewáin*), but is seldom found among the common people.

GOVERNMENT.—Every village or town is governed by a Council of elders, chosen from among every tribe or "taifa." The most influential man among these elders for the time being is considered as the chief of the Council. These elders are either Shins or Yashkun. No Kamin can be elected an elder, though he may become a Mulla, but a Mulla-kamin also cannot be admitted to the Council.

The reigning Council of Gabriál consists of 12 persons, of whom 9 are Shins and 3 Yashkuns. Faiziá Khán is the present chief of the Council. The post of Chief of the Council is not hereditary, but the wisest and the most influential of the elders is elected to that post. Justice is administered by the Mullahs without the interference of the Council, whose operation is limited to inter-tribal feuds.

CUSTOMS AND MANNERS.—Hockey on horseback, which is called "ughlik" in Gabriál, is played on holidays; and the place where they meet for the sport is called "ughlik-kuro-jha."

Guns are called "sáli" in Gabriál, and are manufactured in the town.

Dancing is not practised generally, as in the other Shin countries. Only "Doms" dance and sing, as this is their profession; they play on the "surái" (pipe), rabáb (harp), and dhapdu (drum).

The "purdá" system, or "veiling" women, is prevalent among the gentry, but it is only lately that the system was introduced into this country.

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tutelary deity of Chilas whose worship was practised in former times.

The system of government is the same in all these small republics, and differs somewhat from what obtains among the Afghans. Each village, according to its size, has a certain number of Jushteros, or elders, who are appointed according to the general estimation in which they are held for bravery, liberality, and eloquence. They receive no benefit from their office, and are more the servants than the leaders of those they represent. Each village manages its own affairs irrespective of its neighbours, and it is in the superintendence of these details that the Jushteros are mostly occupied. All matters affecting the village are discussed in public. A meeting for this purpose is called *Sigas*. At the Sigas all who please join in the discussion, the Jushteros apparently encouraging individuals to give their advice, and when the general opinion has thus been elicited, the Jushteros announce the decision they have formed. At a Sigas of several villages, a single Jushtero is appointed by each village at a meeting previously held. At the close of the general discussion, which is open as before, a loud whistle is given, after which none but the representative Jushteros are allowed to speak. If war with a neighbouring valley is determined on, the Jushteros settle the way in which those they represent shall take part in it; but beyond their personal influence they have little voice in determining the general policy to be pursued. It is for them to decide who shall stay at home and who shall take the field, and in the innumerable disputes about land their decision is respected; but should the dispute involve men of another village, they are expected to do their best for their own townsmen. In more serious disputes the whole valley makes common cause against its neighbours; but this does not prevent all the communities combining, when threatened by an external foe. Criminal offences are not dealt with by the Jushteros, but by the Shariyat; this is, however, set aside in many instances in favour of ancient custom, which is very strong in some communities, and the prompt redress of grievances depends greatly on the personal influence of the aggrieved. Murder is regarded as a personal matter to be avenged by the nearest relative; but should the case be of a very wanton nature, and the family of the murdered individual have sufficient influence with the community, reparation is enforced by general consent. Blood feuds are not permitted to last for an indefinite period, as

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628 Blood feuds are not permitted to last for an indefinite period as amongst the Afghans, and after a time the parties are brought
674 together and made to swear peace on the Koran. The crime of murder is rare, and the readiness to spill blood on slight
● 623 occasions so noticeable among the Afghans is unknown. No public measure can be carried out except by general agreement, the details being left for the Jushteros to arrange.

178 The communities in the lower part of Shinkari, being more exposed to Afghan influence, and having been longer converted to Mahommedanism, have lost many of their characteristic customs; but the remoter valleys of Chilas, Gor, Darel, and in a lesser degree Tangir, are probably little changed from
834 what they were two hundred years ago. A very singular custom exists in these valleys, by which the sexes are kept strictly apart during the summer, from May till September. The custom is apparently very ancient, and any attempt to evade it is punished by fine; the old women of the family being specially charged with the responsibility of seeing that
165 the rule is observed. Great difficulty is said to be experienced in rearing children in Chilas. The great mortality among them is ascribed to the climate, but it is more probably due to too close intermarriage.

462 Agriculture is left entirely to the women, with the exception of ploughing, which demands more strength than they can afford. In summer the men spin wool and attend to their flocks on the mountain pastures; but in winter the duty of caring for the herds is relegated to the women.

567 Slavery is a recognised institution in all the Shinkari republics—a matter in which they contrast unfavourably with the Afghans and Neemchas of the Indus Valley, among whom it is unknown. Prisoners taken in war, and the children born of slave parents, form the servile class.

1: Drew G-3 (1862-1872) 1875 AV1 Kashmir
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131 A few miles below Kolī is Batera; beyond that Dārdistān
101 ends and the Pathān country, where the Pashtū language prevails, begins. The Kolī people are Dārds; they know both the Dārd and Pashtū languages.

642 Many places have been put down as republics; what I have
646 been able to find out about the way of their government will apply to them generally. There is a general assembly of the people, called Sigās, which decides on almost every matter.
[562] It is called together by beat of drum; men, old and young, attend it, but not women; none who have the right to attend are allowed to be absent, under pain of fine. In this assembly the rights of a minority are carefully guarded. I have been told that if even one man, supposing him to be of any consideration, object to a policy, it cannot be carried out; the assembly is adjourned for a few days, and in the interval effort is made either to convince the objector or to modify the proposal; then meeting, they may perhaps have again to adjourn; but in time something or other is sure to be arranged.

643 The executive consists of a few men, may be five or six, chosen by the people in their assembly. These are called *Joshtero* in the Dārd language. They are chosen for their wisdom; but here as elsewhere wealth seems to have influence to convince the people of the wisdom of those who possess it. The office of Joshtero is not hereditary; the Joshteros must be in general accord with the assembly else they will be displaced. The Joshteros deliberate together on a policy, but cannot carry it out without the consent of the assembly of the people, which they themselves call
[692] together. The Joshteros are also arbitrators to settle disputes of water and wood, and what not.

623 Where the valley is large, like, for instance, Dārel, each village has its own Sigās, or assembly, which settles the particular affairs of that village, while for matters of more general policy the Joshteros of all the villages first meet, and make among themselves a plan to propose, and then a general parliament is called; that is, the people themselves of all the villages together meet to hear and decide. If all of the villages cannot agree on one policy, then

1: Drew G-3 (1862-1872) 1875 AV1 Kashmir
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each is free to pursue its own without severing the federal bond. Thus I have heard that some villages have joined with one power—have agreed to pay tribute—while others of the same valley have done the same to the rival power. But there must be some limit to this. They could not, of course, actively join on opposite sides.

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My knowledge of the working of these institutions is very incomplete; on the whole I incline to think that with the republics there is less of wars of ambition than with those valleys that are governed by an hereditary ruler, less of bloodshed on a large scale, such as is brought about by or for the dispossession of dynasties. But I do not think that the internal state is so secure and quiet as under a Raja; in the republics personal independence and liberty of action are so much the rule, that no one interferes to prevent even violence.

D 567

In the Table given at p. 456, the last column shows the custom of the various states with respect to slavery. There are three categories. The first includes Gilgit, Astor, Nagar, &c.; in these places not only is slavery unknown now that some of them are under the rule of the Maharaja of Kashmir, but, according to my information, it was not the custom before.

Another category includes the Republics; in these, slaves when captured in a foray are kept as servants, as we saw was the case in Chilás with those they brought away from Astor; but they are not used as a commodity to be bought and sold.

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Thirdly, in the Rajaships of Hunza, Yásin, and Chitrál, slaves are openly bought and sold; the Rajas themselves are the chief dealers—that is to say, they are sellers—while merchants, generally from Badakhshán, are the buyers. The greater expense of sustaining these governments, as compared with the republics has probably been the cause of the Rajas entering on this trade, in which they will sell, in default of others, their own subjects even. Many are the people, and of races various—Dárd and Dográ, Panjábi and Pathán—whom the fortune of war has allowed to fall into the hands of one or other of these rulers, and who, having been bartered by their avaricious captor, are passing their lives as exiles and slaves in Badakhshán or in Turkistán.